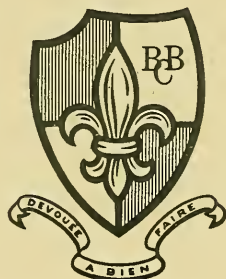



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AMERICAN

PHYSICAL EDUCATION REVIEW.

VOL. I.

SEPTEMBER-DECEMBER, 1896.

Nos. 1, 2.

PETER HENRY LING, THE SWEDISH GYMNASIARCH.

BY EDWARD M. HARTWELL, OF BOSTON.

Peter Henry Ling, the founder of Swedish gymnastics, was born November 15, 1776, near Wexiö, in Småland, one of the southern provinces of Sweden, and died in his sixty-third year, on May 3, 1839, at Annalund, near Stockholm. His father, a poor country parson, died when Peter Henry, who was the youngest of six children, was only two years old. Ling's mother married the new parson, but did not live long. Ling's stepfather seems to have treated the dreamy, imaginative boy kindly, but to have aroused his antagonism by designing him for the pastor's calling. In due time young Ling entered upon a course of classical training in the gymnasium or Latin school of Wexiö, where he distinguished himself by reason of his mental ability, strong individuality, firm, unyielding will, and reckless enterprise. Naturally impetuous, restless, and impressionable, he was also good-hearted, patient, and forbearing.

His course as a preparatory student was abruptly terminated by his suspension, or possibly expulsion, from the school on account of his refusal to give the name of the ringleader of some schoolboy pranks in which he was concerned. He left Wexiö on foot, avoided his home, and appealed to one of his brothers, who gave him some small change and much good advice. But the boy replied, when advised to go home: "There is a blot on my fair name, but I shall wash it off," and then set out to seek his fortune, friendless and alone.

He is usually credited with being a wanderer, for many years, in Sweden, Denmark, Germany, France, and even England. In after

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years he was averse to talking about this period of his life. It is certain that he acquired a practical knowledge of the principal languages spoken in the north of Europe, including French. He is reputed to have made his living at times as a waiter, at times as an interpreter and translator, and again as a house tutor. It is even said that he served for a time in the army of Prince Condé. It is quite certain that in 1801 he was enrolled as a volunteer for service in the naval defence of Copenhagen against the British fleet under Nelson.

In 1793 Ling was a student in the Swedish University of Lund; but not for long, as in May of that year his name was inscribed as a student of the University of Upsala, where in 1797 he passed his examination in theology. Oue Weilauff, a Danish official, writing in 1847, professes to have been a fellow student of Ling's in the University of Copenhagen from July, 1799, till September or October, 1804. Weilauff says that Ling left Upsala in June, 1799, for Copenhagen, and began his studies in philology in July of that year, devoting himself zealously to modern tongues and Scandinavian mythology. If Weilauff's statements are to be credited — and they are most circumstantial — the stories of Ling's adventurous wanderings in Germany, France, England, and Russia may be regarded as somewhat mythical.

“Ling's five years' stay in Copenhagen,” says Weilauff, “had an altogether decisive influence upon all his later education and activity. It was here that he came first to know the Edda and the Scandinavian mythology. He began to study German *belles-lettres*, especially the works of Goethe and Schiller, among which Goethe's ‘Werther’ exercised a strong influence upon the sometimes fanatical and melancholy youth. He also attended the lectures of Steffens, who made his debut in Copenhagen in 1802, as a lecturer on philosophy and on Goethe.”

“It was also in Copenhagen that Ling began his poetical activity. He composed several short poems in French, German, and Danish, and made a free rhymed translation into Swedish of Ewald's ‘Death of Baldur.’ His translation of a Danish comedy entitled ‘The Jealous Man,’ which was published in Copenhagen in 1804, is, without doubt, his first printed work.”

“As Ling first struck in Copenhagen the path along which, in his riper years, he was to gather his laurels, so was it also here that he

first became acquainted with that art which he later transplanted to his fatherland, and by means of which he won for himself recognition and place. At first he began to learn fencing from two French *émigrés* (Montrichard and Beurrier), who had set up a fencing school here. Ling attributed the cure of a gouty affection in one of his arms to the fencing. On this account he was induced to take up gymnastics in their proper sense."

"The creator of this art in Denmark was Commissary-General Nachtgall, recently deceased (*i. e.*, when Weilauff wrote, in 1847), who in 1799 had established a private 'turnanstalt' in Copenhagen, to which many university students resorted. Among them was Ling. He took up gymnastics with all his might, as he did any subject that particularly interested him. He was not content to practice gymnastic dexterity simply as a means of strengthening his health, but looked upon it at the same time as an art of great importance, and strove to give it a scientific basis and to make use of it according to mathematical and anatomical rules."

In the autumn of 1804 Ling left Copenhagen and repaired to Lund, in Sweden, where he was soon appointed university fencing master (on December 28, 1804). A few months after his departure from Copenhagen we find Ling writing to his friend as follows:—

"Above all, procure me a good vaulting horse, which is no end needful for me. I do not intend, as you may think, to fit up a gymnastic institute here in Lund, but it devolves on a *fechtmeister* in a Swedish academy to be able to give instruction in vaulting with the horse. At the same time they wish instruction in riding, since it is proposed to establish a riding school here, as in Upsala. Alas! I have lost almost all my skill in riding. Still, practice will soon restore it."

Thus it was that Ling entered upon his work at the age of twenty-eight. He remained in Lund till 1812, when he was called to the post of teacher of gymnastics at the Royal Military Academy in Karlberg, near Stockholm. He accepted the call the more gladly for the reason that he had formed the plan of establishing a central institute at Stockholm for the further development of gymnastics, more particularly through the training of skillful gymnasts, who should be well grounded in the theory and practice of their art. On first proposing to the government his scheme for a normal school of gymnastics, he met with a rebuff. "We have," replied the Minister,

“jugglers, acrobats, and rope dancers enough already, without burdening the treasury of the State on their account.” Nothing daunted, Ling continued to urge his views, and in 1813 the government consented to the establishment of a Royal Central Institute of Gymnastics, and made a grant of money for its maintenance. In 1814 the Institute was opened with Ling as its director, on the site which has been devoted to the purposes of the Institute from that day to this, I believe.

Ling's ideal, formed apparently while still a student in Copenhagen, was to awaken, strengthen, and confirm patriotic and national feeling among his countrymen; to promote not only the full and rational education of the people, but also to develop a love for the stirring sagas and myths in which were recounted the valiant and heroic deeds of the ancient Norsemen. He belonged for a time to the Gothic party in literature, as it was called, to which belonged also Sweden's most famous and popular poet, Bishop Tegner, author of the “Frithiof Saga.” The aim of the Gothic party, whose antagonists were the representatives of the romantic and French party, was to counteract the demoralizing influences due to the imitation and exaltation of foreign culture and literature, especially the French. Ling was too individual and self-sufficient a man to work well within the lines of any party. He dreamed and strove to write a Norse epic which should occupy a place in Scandinavian literature similar to that held by Homer's epics in Grecian literature. Finding its leaders somewhat antipathetic, Ling left the Gothic association and went his own way.

Ling was a voluminous poet — a veritable skald cast in the ancient mold. His poems, which include epic, dramatic, and lyrical productions, constitute by far the greater portion of his published works. Ling's complete works consist of four goodly volumes, amounting to more than 2500 octavo pages. Of these, less than 400 pages are devoted to gymnastics.

Though Ling is hardly to be classed among distinctively popular poets, his poems have exercised a considerable influence upon Swedish scholarship, literature, and art, especially sculpture. The Royal Swedish Academy of Arts and Sciences was founded nearly a century and a half ago. Its eighteen members, named by the Crown, are chosen from the most representative men of their day. In 1835 the founder of the present dynasty, King Charles John XIV, known also

as General Bernadotte, made Ling a member of the Swedish Academy in recognition of his position as a national poet. The same King also conferred on Ling the honorary title of Professor, and the decoration of the Order of the North Star. It is also to be noted that Ling's success in the domain of gymnastics was due in no small measure to the friendship and influence of Charles John XIV, both as Crown Prince and as King, and of his son, Oscar I.

Ling's work, as the founder and representative of Swedish gymnastics, falls naturally into the Lund and Stockholm periods, the first of which is covered by the years 1805-1812, and the second by the years 1812-1839 (when he died).

While at Lund, Ling not only taught fencing and gymnastics, and devoted much time to the study of anatomy and physiology, with a view to basing his system and teachings upon rational and scientific foundations, but also lectured in the university on Old Norse mythology, poetry, and history. He published some poems and gave instruction in modern languages.

In Stockholm, Ling was teacher of gymnastics in the Cadet School at Karlberg from 1812 to 1825, and was fencing master there from 1817 to 1825, when he withdrew from the institution. He was director of the Central Gymnastic Institute, from its establishment in 1813, for more than twenty-five years.

It can hardly be doubted that Ling gained his first knowledge of gymnastics at Nachteggall's institute in Copenhagen. Nachteggall was a follower of Guts-Muths, and there is every reason to believe that Ling — such was his thorough-going nature — was acquainted with Guts-Muths' writings, as well as practiced in the Guts-Muths-Nachteggall gymnastics. To Denmark, be it said, belongs the credit of first making gymnastics a part of the obligatory training in the army and the public schools.

Guts-Muths in 1793 dedicated his first book on gymnastics to Prince Frederick of Denmark, who was then Regent, but became King in 1808. He did so because he believed that Prince Frederick, "who had broken the shackles of serfdom and slavery in his kingdom, would be inclined to favor a more vigorous sort of education than had hitherto obtained." The Prince, who was a pupil of Nachteggall's in gymnastics, became an influential patron of the Institute, and was active in introducing instruction in gymnastics and swimming into the army and the cadet schools of Denmark. Three

hours of gymnastics weekly was the amount prescribed, and the schools were required to provide themselves with suitably furnished out-of-door gymnasia.

Guts-Muths first defined "gymnastik," a term which was rejected by Jahn but retained by Ling, as "work masked under the garb of youthful pleasure or merriment." Later he defined gymnastics as "a system of exercises having bodily perfection as their aim." It is possible that Ling received some impulse toward his studies of the laws of bodily movements from the following utterance of Guts-Muths: "I know well enough," says the latter, "that a genuine theory of gymnastics should be based on physiological principles, and that the practice of every single movement should be governed by a consideration of the individual peculiarities of the body."

It matters little whence or from whom Ling derived his first impulse. He was soon able to make free and original use of the material which lay nearest his hand, and finally evolved a system of gymnastics unlike any that had been devised in any country. It is as idle to deny Ling's originality as it would be to attempt to minimize Harvey's claims as discoverer of the circular motion of the blood, because he was led to make his epoch-making experiments through knowledge of the anatomical discoveries of his Italian teacher, Fabricius of Acquapendente, who proved that the venous blood flowed toward the heart. Harvey died without having demonstrated to the eye the flow of blood through the capillaries. But having proved the main facts upon which the doctrine which bears his name is based, nobody thinks of attributing Harvey's discovery to Malpighi, who furnished the last link in proving it true. Similarly, though the Swedish system of gymnastics has been considerably modified by Ling's successors, and particularly by his son, Hjalmar Ling, its development has followed so closely the lines marked out by Ling that his name is still rightly given to that system.

It is clear, from accounts given of a military gymnasium planned and fitted according to Ling's views in 1819, that he did not for some years discard the Guts-Muths-Nachtegall gymnastic machines; and it is equally clear that he was recognized as an innovator, and the originator of the new method, even before he was called to Stockholm.

One Molbech, probably a Dane, writing from Lund in 1812, notes that the old university building had been turned into a fencing school and gymnasium. Of Ling he says: "He performs his duties with

great zeal, and has introduced into his instruction a systematic method, in which he differs somewhat from the forms of instruction common elsewhere. I had," says Molbech, "the pleasure to witness these exercises, in which some of his pupils, from seven to eighteen years old, had attained a truly astonishing dexterity in a comparatively short time. It is indeed a pity that this arrangement is, properly speaking, only for the young gentry who have means, and resort to the university with their attendants, more for the sake of these exercises, and to learn living languages, than on account of the teaching of the professors. The gymnastic instruction is a private matter and is paid for as such. The fencing master receives only an inconsiderable sum from the university, in return for which he gives free instruction to a few poor students and to a few town children, whom he admits gratis. So far Lund has the advantage over Upsala in this matter. I leave it to others to determine to what extent gymnastic teaching belongs to the proper work of a university. For my own part I am not one of those who set a low estimate on the gymnastic art. I look upon it rather, though it is now in its infancy, as one of the most powerful means by which mankind is able to counteract the physical and moral weaknesses which have, alas! kept pace with the new culture."

We come now to the consideration of Ling's writings and teachings upon gymnastics. Ling held the most comprehensive views with regard to his art, declaring that it was capable of being employed for the use and benefit of the whole nation, and should not be regarded as appropriate for specially interested individuals or clubs simply. Ling did not live to write a complete and exhaustive treatise. His principal works are as follows: (1) "The General Principles of Gymnastics," published first in 1840 by his pupils, Liedbeck and Georgii; (2) "Regulations for Gymnastics to be Used in the Army," published in 1836; and (3) "Instructions in Gymnastics and Bayonet Exercises for Soldiers," published in 1838.

"The General Principles of Gymnastics" is divided into six parts, viz.:—

1. The laws of the human organism.
2. The principles of pedagogical gymnastics.
3. The principles of military gymnastics.
4. The principles of medical gymnastics.
5. The principles of æsthetic gymnastics.
6. The means or vehicle of gymnastics.

A few extracts from his "General Principles" will serve to show Ling's point of view and line of argument:—

"By theory of gymnastics we mean the doctrine of bodily movements, in consonance with the laws discernible in the organism. We have shown in the first part that these laws aim at a complete agreement among the parts of the organism, and that health is the expression of this harmony."

"On account of the relation of men as well to themselves as the outer world, and still more by reason of human nature in its present fallen and dilapidated state, the gymnastic elements must take four principal directions, *viz.*: a subjective-active, an objective-active, a subjective-passive, or an objective-passive. All of these different relations have their basis in the three 'ground-forms,' the dynamic, chemical, and mechanical, since these are powers of the organism. In the first case we imagine one acting by means of his own force in order to maintain and develop it; in the second case his action is directed against some force external to himself; in the third case his organism is in a state of perturbation of some kind, so that he is less able to act than to suffer himself to be acted upon—*i. e.*, he must submit to the mechanical influence of some external agent; in the last case one simply gives expression of his inner being to some outer being."

"From these arise the four divisions of gymnastics, which are named: (1) Pedagogical gymnastics, by means of which one learns to bring his body under the control of his own will. (2) Military gymnastics, in which one seeks by means of an external thing—*e. g.*, a weapon, or by means of his own bodily power—to subject the will of another person to his own will. (3) Medical gymnastics, by means of which one seeks, either by his own proper posture or with the help of another person and by helpful movements, to diminish or overcome the ailment which has arisen in his body through its abnormal relations. (4) Æsthetic gymnastics, through which a person endeavors to give bodily expression to his inner being, thoughts, or impressions."

"Pedagogical gymnastics develop the innate endowments to unity among the parts of the organism. In military gymnastics unity is sought between the body and the weapon in relation to the expressions of an antagonist. By means of medical gymnastics one seeks to restore unity between the parts, which has been lost through their

abnormal relations; and through æsthetic gymnastics the subject expresses the unity which exists between the mental and bodily being. Therefore all the principal divisions have a mutual interdependence; and gymnastics, in which no regard is paid to the unity which should exist in and among these parts, have no laws, but are simply based on whim or fashion."

Inasmuch as Ling is considered by many as the originator of modern mechano-therapy, his views on the nature of health and disease possess some historical interest. Ling believed in a vital force having three "ground-forms," *viz.*: the dynamic, in which life, giving as it were an expression of its independent being, strives to liberate itself from matter; and the chemical and mechanical, in which life manifests itself in union with matter. In chemical force, however, life appears to occupy the foreground, while in mechanical force matter preponderates; therefore both of these forms may be considered as separate forms, existing under independent conditions. In the organism the nervous system corresponds to the dynamic ground form, the circulatory system to the chemical, and the muscular system to the mechanical. Health consists in the mutual harmony of these three "agents." When this harmony is disturbed disease arises in the following manner: "When the dynamic force is the strongest element, disease takes a mechanical form; if the mechanical is the strongest element, disease takes a chemical shape; and if the chemical is the chief agent, the disease declares itself under a dynamic form."

This is very learned and edifying, no doubt, but to me it sounds very labored and inconclusive; and I must confess that I have been vastly bored in my attempts to follow Ling in his philosophical lucubrations with regard to the nature of life, the laws of organic unity, and the relation between parts and totality. Ling was undoubtedly a man of genius, a close observer in certain directions, and possessed of insight; but he was essentially an empiricist and not a scientist in his study of the nature and functions of the body. His opinions on biology, pathology, and physiology have the stamp of the fantastic speculations of the natural philosophers of the last century, and cannot easily be translated into the scientific terms of today. He was doubtless a fair anatomist and understood much of the laws of animal mechanics, so far as they are concerned in the functions of the joints and the movements of the limbs.—He was not an accomplished physi-

ologist; in the then existing state of the science it was hardly possible that he should be.

It seems hardly fair to judge of Ling's title to fame and grateful remembrance from the exposition of views contained in his "General Principles of Gymnastics," which was published after his death by two of his pupils.

The works relating to gymnastics which Ling himself gave to the world during his life were of a thoroughly practical nature. It is certain that Ling was a conscientious, inspiring, and successful teacher of gymnastics, and that he was instrumental in winning new and wide recognition of the educational and therapeutical value of systematized muscular exercise. Ling's most considerable achievements were in the departments of military and medical gymnastics. School gymnastics, as a branch of public instruction in Sweden, do not appear to have become highly organized or generally adopted till years after his death. They have developed along lines marked out by Ling, and derive many of their distinctive features from the peculiar conditions under which Ling was placed as an instructor of military cadets. The preponderance of officers of the army and navy among instructors in gymnastics in Sweden may be assigned as one reason for the comparatively slight development of popular gymnastics and athletics in that country.

Ling never worked out his scheme of "æsthetic gymnastics" very fully, and the attempts of certain of his successors in this direction have not proved signally successful. As has been said above, Ling's gymnastic labors were most fruitful in the fields of military and medical gymnastics. The great merit of his system, it seems to me, lies in the fact that only carefully selected forms of exercise are included in it.

Ling laid great stress on positions as distinguished from movements, and also emphasized the necessity of making all movements with care and precision at the word of command. He anticipated the common and class exercises of Spiess, and was the first to devise free movements as preparatory exercises for exercises on gymnastic machines; and subordinated exercises on apparatus to the needs and nature of the body, while Jahn subordinated the body to the nature of gymnastic machines, so to speak.

Ling divided movements into trunk, head, arm, and leg movements. He made use of "tables of movements," which are the proto-

types of the present arrangement known as the gymnastic day's order. The following statements of Ling's in regard to the general laws of gymnastics serve to indicate his point of view:—

1. The aim of gymnastics is to develop the human body by means of properly chosen movements.

2. Those movements are to be considered properly chosen which have their true principle in the condition of the body which is to be built up.

3. The human body cannot be developed further than its original endowment or constitution permits.

4. Through lack of exercise the original endowment of bodily force may be unused, but not destroyed.

Ling's setting forth of the advantages of exercise without apparatus is interesting and instructive. He claims:—

1. That more can exercise at one time under a teacher.

2. That such movements can be made in a great variety of places; *e. g.*, on the march, in barracks, quarters, school-room, or in a school-yard.

3. That the trouble and expense of providing and keeping apparatus in repair are eliminated.

4. That the fact that the entire squad or class must make the exercises at the same moment promotes strength and agility and rapid attainment of bodily control.

5. That the execution of gymnastics at the word of command reinforces the effect of strictly military drill.

6. That free movements are more easily adaptable to the bodily peculiarities of individuals.

7. That they are better than machine gymnastics for overcoming awkwardness and stiffness.

In short, they afford the readiest and most rational means of laying a proper foundation for the technical drill of the military or naval recruit.

Ling's gymnastic tables, published in 1836 in his "Reglement för Gymnastik," usually contain from ten to twelve movements. His first table, for instance, consists of what would now be called five order movements. Then follow: 6, a leg movement; 7, an arm movement; 8 and 9, a leg movement; 10 and 11, arm movements of a somewhat "respiratory" nature.

His sixth table comprises twelve movements: 1, leg movement; 2, arm movement; 3, head movement; 4, trunk movement or back movement; 5, leg movement; 6, arm movement; 7, leg movement; 8, arm movement; 9, jumping movement; 10, trunk movement; 11, leg movement; and 12, arm movement.

His tables also exhibit progression. Moreover, he laid down the rule that movements should be made in such wise as to promote and not hinder full, free, and deep breathing.

It was no small achievement for a man of Ling's poetic, idealistic cast of mind to attain so large a measure of success as a practical gymnasiarch, and as the founder and director of a semi-military gymnastic institute. It speaks volumes for his character and gifts that he was able to commend his innovations to persons in power, and to win the recognition and support of the Department of War.

As a teacher of military cadets, Ling was necessarily obliged to conform his procedures and methods to army regulations. It was incumbent upon him to teach with authority, to eschew useless or merely pleasurable forms of exercise, and to produce results without loss of time or the employment of elaborate or costly apparatus. Swedish gymnastics still bear witness to their semi-military origin; and I am inclined to think that on the whole Ling's peculiar aims are more completely reflected, and his methods more fully embodied, in the physical training of recruits and soldiers than in any other department of Swedish gymnastics.

Officers in the army and navy have always figured prominently, since Ling's day, in the management of the Royal Central Gymnastic Institute at Stockholm. They have furnished and still furnish the largest and most influential contingent among its pupils and graduates. The military element has served to give dignity to the profession of gymnast and instructor of gymnastics in Sweden, and to preserve the Ling tradition from becoming too modern or popular. Indeed, there is ground for the belief that the rather limited vogue of the Swedish system of physical education is in some measure owing to the predilection of military men for unquestioning acceptance of their dicta, and their inaptitude for easily readjusting themselves to new conditions and changed points of view.

Ling was a pioneer, but not the first or the last, in the modern development of physical education. Among pioneers in that field he is entitled to a prominent and honorable place, because of the sagacity

and devotion which characterized his labors, and of the large measure of success which crowned his endeavors to systematize and simplify the art of instruction in gymnastics and fencing. His character was elevated ; his aims patriotic and comprehensive. His methods were simple, direct, and orderly. His influence upon his pupils and disciples was deep and lasting. He gave a direction and stamp to Swedish gymnastics which they still retain. He won honor for himself and respect for his subject among his contemporaries. His spirit, his point of view, his methods, and his achievements are worthy of our study and emulation.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES, AND THEIR INFLUENCE UPON
PHYSICAL EDUCATION.*

BY ELLERY H. CLARK, OF BOSTON.

Over six months have passed since the celebration of the revival of the Olympic games at Athens. The momentary excitement caused by the games as mere contests has long since died away, and now it is interesting to study them from a broader point of view, and to see whether they have not been of vastly more importance than is generally supposed by people who have regarded them merely as a struggle for athletic supremacy.

The revival of the games was intended to accomplish two main objects. First, they were to be preëminently international in character. To insure this they were to be held every four years by each country in turn, thus allotting to every nation a share in their management, and furnishing a means for representative athletes of all countries to meet upon an equal footing. Secondly, the games were meant to reawaken an interest in manly outdoor sport the world over, and to bring back something of the spirit of the old Olympic games.

Many people have undertaken to say that they could not have been a success, basing their statement upon the fact that no records were broken at the games. Although under the circumstances remarkable performances were rendered well-nigh impossible, it is hardly necessary to enter into any discussion of that subject here. From the standpoint of the athletic enthusiast, who is never happy unless some man is jumping an eighth of an inch higher or running a tenth of a second faster than the best previous record, the games were most certainly a distinct failure. Looking at the games, however, from the point of view of men who realize the great importance of a healthy out-of-doors spirit in a nation, and who regard athletics simply as a means to an end, it is a great pleasure to be able to say that the games were an unqualified success.

In the first place it is, of course, obvious that even with the hearty coöperation of many different countries, and with a strong feeling of

*This paper was read at the meeting of the Boston Physical Education Society, November 12, 1896, by Mr. Clark, a member of the Boston Athletic Association team which competed in the Olympic games at Athens, in April, 1896. Mr. Clark won the high and broad jumps.

rivalry among the contestants themselves, the games could not have been a great success if the spectators had not taken a hearty interest. There was no fear on this score from the very beginning. When, on the opening day, with a dozen bands playing the Greek national hymn, the King entered the Stadium and formally opened the games in the presence of 80,000 people, every member of our team echoed the remark of one of our number, who said that he would not mind winning a prize, but that, even if he came out last in his event, his first sight of the games had amply repaid him for his entire trip.

The presence of a large number of spectators was rendered more than usually necessary by the immense size of the Stadium. One morning, while the weight-lifting and some of the more uninteresting gymnastic contests were going on, only some 15,000 or 20,000 people attended, and the staring rows of empty benches cast a gloom over the sport. Various estimates have been made of the attendance on the final day of the games, when the finish of the Marathon race took place. The lowest of these was placed at 80,000, and some ran as high as 120,000; but I think, from the calculations of people who were in the best position to judge, that 100,000 is a fair estimate. Some one observed that a greater opportunity for thieves never existed since the world was made, as all the houses in Athens were empty. He was reassured, however, by the information that the houses were in no danger, as the superior attractions of the games had drawn all the thieves, as well as all the honest men, to the Stadium.

And now that we have seen that the games were a success from the spectators' point of view, a word as to the success of the games themselves.

I have said that one of the two main objects was that the games should have a distinctly international character. There was no doubt on this point from the outset. England, Australia, America, France, Germany, Austria, Sweden, Denmark, Hungary, Greece, Switzerland, Holland, all were represented, and one of the pleasantest features of the games was the hearty, good feeling which existed among the different competitors.

The lack of a common language was keenly felt, but the cheers, the smiles, and the hearty hand-shakes which awaited each visitor were a sure proof that the rivalry, though keen, was nevertheless of a wholly sportsmanlike and generous kind.

The number of different nations represented gave every one a chance of learning something, and the representatives of no one nation were able to go away feeling that they were superior to the rest.

The French excelled easily in the bicycle races; the Hungarians had a wonderful swimmer; a huge Dane and an Englishman carried off the honors in the weight-lifting contests; the Americans were the most successful in the track and field events; the Germans were easy winners on the parallel bars; while the Marathon race and many of the gymnastic events fell to the share of the Greeks. Thus the first object of the games was completely attained. They were international in the widest sense of the word.

And now as to the second object — the awakening of a new interest in athletic sports. It was easy to see that to many countries physical education must seem of small importance, for it soon became obvious that the systematic care of the body, as least so far as regarded the track and field events, which formed the most important part of the games, was practically unknown among most of the contestants. Surprising as their ignorance seemed to us, it was nothing to the amazement which they felt at the idea of a man's attaining such a knowledge of himself that he could tell just what work and how much of it, and just what food and how much of it, would put him in the best possible condition.

The startling facts that the American team retired at nine o'clock, had a special training table, and were seldom seen outside the hotel on the forenoon of the day when contests were to be held, were duly chronicled in the papers, along with others which in turn were a surprise to us,—one paper alleging that we slept twenty-four hours before our events, ate nothing but beef, and murmured mysterious incantations while the games were in progress. We were overwhelmed with questions, and finally Mr. Connolly, one of our party, was interviewed, and gave for publication, in one of the principal papers, a brief talk on American ideas of training, dieting, etc.

The Greeks especially suffered from not understanding how to keep themselves in the best condition. They had absolutely no one to train them except a Mr. Perry, who always keeps the London Athletic Club grounds in condition, and who came to Athens to oversee the building of the track there. He gave the Greeks what instruction he could, but it was hard work to keep track of the large

number of men in training, and still harder to make the men train as he wished them to. Finally, after he had imported a pair of running shoes furnished with the regulation long spikes for work on the cinder track, and the athlete for whom they were intended promptly filed off the spikes, thinking that they would hinder him in running, Mr. Perry almost gave up his efforts at training in disgust.

The Greeks' lack of training knowledge showed itself in various ways. One of their athletes was up all night before the day of his event, drinking and making merry with his friends. Again, while I do not for a moment mean to detract from Mr. Garret's performance with the discus, the Greeks lost the event solely by their own fault. The best two discus throwers among the Greeks were throwing in practice some feet better than Mr. Garret's winning throw, and were doing it not on one occasion alone, but as a regular thing. Mr. Perry told them that in an event like the discus, where an athlete must have energy in reserve for a supreme effort, too much practice is as bad or even worse than too little. His advice, however, had no effect, and the two athletes, imagining that they must improve in proportion to the amount of work done, came to the Stadium day after day and made throw after throw, until, in athletic parlance, they became thoroughly "stale," and on the day of the games practically defeated themselves by their lack of condition.

Finally, in regard to the Marathon race, Baron Coubertin, in his article in the November *Century* on the games, states that three young men were reported to have fallen victims to their own overzealousness while practicing for the race, so that their ignorance of training cost them their lives. I see no reason to discredit this report, for the ideas of the Greeks in preparing for the race were of the crudest. It is hard to realize the effect that running twenty-five miles over a rough road, at an eight-miles-an-hour gait, has on a man. About a month ago a so-called Marathon race was held in New York, and one of the runners, a really first-class cross-country man, told me that although he had trained faithfully for the race, he was completely exhausted after it, and further said that he considered the strain very severe, and the race really too hard a one for any one not possessed of remarkable endurance.

It is easy to imagine, then, the strain on the Greek runners, for they not only ran the distance many times in practice, but actually held the trial race, for the purpose of selecting their best runners, on

a Monday, when the final struggle was to occur on the following Friday. Under these circumstances it seems to me that the Greeks deserve great credit for winning the race, especially as the time made was excellent.*

While we have thus seen that the Greeks did too much, as a rule, in preparation for the games, the Hungarian team showed their ignorance by doing too little. After the games I had a long talk with the trainer of their team, which consisted of some ten or twelve men. He told me that his men were so confident of carrying everything before them that nothing he could say had any effect. He told them again and again that they were not taking pains enough to prepare themselves for their events, and that even if they did their best the chances were that some other nation would defeat them.

It proved impossible, however, to convince them, and with the exception of their champion swimmer, who won the short distance swimming race in remarkably fast time, and their long distance runner, who finished fourth in the Marathon race, they made a poor showing. Their pole vaulter had been holding his pole in such a manner that it was practically impossible for him to clear any great height, and their runners ran with a short, jerky stride which exhausted them early in the race, and furnished a complete contrast to the long, machine-like strides of Burke, the American, and Black, the Australian. The French bicycle riders seemed to keep in fine shape, but the rest of their athletes seemed to have very little idea of keeping in the best possible condition. The Germans, who proved the winners in the parallel bar competition after a very close contest with one of the Greek teams, made a poor showing in the track and field events.

Their athletes were entered indiscriminately for about every event on the programme, and in consequence, some of their team made a rather ridiculous showing. Two of them, however, Messrs. Hofmann and Schumann, proved really fine athletes. Schumann was very short and stout, but immensely strong and active. He was a

* Since writing the above, Professor Robinson, of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, has informed me that throughout Greece the men are noted for their endurance in distance running. If you hire a horse for the day, a man always travels on foot a short distance behind you and never falls behind. Of course, this fact accounts for the Greek runners not minding their preparatory training as much; but I think, however, there is no doubt that, under the care of a skilled trainer, the winner of the Marathon race might have been made many minutes faster.

member of the winning team on the parallel bars, competed in the jumping events with fair success, and finally took the crowd by storm by winning the wrestling, defeating his opponent, a huge Englishman, in a most surprising manner. The Englishman stood six feet four inches and had a splendid physique, while Schumann stood about five feet four inches. The contrast amused the spectators, who always saw the laughable side of everything, but their laughter was changed to a storm of applause when Schumann closed with his adversary, and threw him flat on his back before he fairly realized what had happened.

Hofmann, their other athlete, was a splendid performer, but he spoiled his chances by going into too many events. He was third in the 100-m. run, ran in the 400-m. run, competed in the jumping and vaulting, captained the winning team on the parallel bars, and tried the rope-climbing; so that, although he did not win a first prize, he was, without much doubt, the best all-around athlete at the games.

Without mentioning further instances of under or over training, I think we may fairly make the statement that, with some few exceptions, the athletes from other nations hardly understood the first principles of keeping themselves in good physical condition.

☞ It may be held that, admitting all this, it is not possible to judge of a nation's knowledge of physical culture by the public performances of a limited number of its representatives. Of course we cannot make any absolute statements concerning the state of physical education in other countries on the strength of their showing in the games, but I think it is obvious that as a general rule there cannot be good athletes without a knowledge of how to care for the body, and that conversely a nation which takes no interest in physical education cannot produce a team of really first-class athletes. Assuming, therefore, that there is great room for improvement in almost every nation in all that pertains to physical education, let us see whether we have any right to think that the Olympic games have had and will have an influence for good.

First of all, of course, Greece was the country most affected. The feeling that national honor was at stake seemed to be the very stimulus needed, and the games caused a genuine athletic revival. The whole nation went almost crazy over athletics, and even the boys around the streets went about with huge numbers pasted on their backs, in imitation of the competitors on the Stadium, challenging

each other to contests at jumping, running, and putting the stone. Mr. Horton, the American Consul, seems to think that the only question is whether the people will stick by athletics, or whether, as the excitement caused by the games dies away, the desire for exercise will subside also. Of course time alone can show, but if I were to hazard an opinion I should say that the interest will last.

In the first place, the Greeks are fortunate in having a man like Prince Constantine for their heir-apparent. From the very beginning he was the life of the games, showing an unflagging interest in everything pertaining to them, and always appeared at the Stadium in the morning, to see that everything was complete for the afternoon's sport.

Prince George, the second son, six feet six inches in height and weighing a trifle under 250 pounds, told us that he had never been beaten in a swimming race, and after the discus-throwing he laughingly said that in 1900 he should have to take a hand himself. Both princes seemed thoroughly alive to the importance of athletics, and determined to do all in their power to foster them.

Besides having rulers interested in athletics, the Greeks have the stimulus of national reputation. The games could not, I think, have resulted better for Greece. Her athletes made a good showing, but had a chance to see how, with a proper understanding of the rules of physical training, they might do much better.

I think that an impression — principally due to newspaper articles written by persons who know nothing of what they are talking about — exists here at home that the Greeks are physically very much our inferiors. This, I think, is not the case. Most of their athletes were well proportioned, strong, and active, and I think, with the training which in some other nations is common, would be our equals if not our superiors in many branches of sport.*

It is not easy to say anything definite about the effect of the games on other nations, for our opportunities of gaining information of any

* Professor Robinson, in commenting on this statement, thinks it should be taken *cum grano salis*. He says, from his experience in Greece, the Greeks cannot be considered as an athletic nation. Of course I could judge merely from the showing of the Greeks in the games. Besides their superiority in distance running, they won many of the gymnastic events, and gave their German competitors a close rub in the parallel bar competition. Their shot putters, who did not understand the first principles of the event, fell only a few inches behind the winner, Mr. Garret, who had had the advantage of the best training. Their broad jumper cleared 20 feet under very unfavorable conditions. I may be wrong, but I think my original contention is correct.

The Olympic Games.

value were limited. I am sure, however, from what my Hungarian friend told me, that there will be a far greater interest in athletics taken in Hungary, since the games have shown that their athletes are not as formidable as they themselves supposed.

In France, too, athletic and rowing clubs are springing up in abundance, and on our return from the games, as we passed through Paris, we noticed advertised in one of the sporting papers five or six different athletic meetings on one day alone. The German representatives also assured us that besides the gymnastic training for which Germany is famous, interest was constantly growing in other kinds of athletics, and that at the next games Germany would be represented by a large number of entries.

On the whole, then, I think we are fairly justified in concluding that the games have had and will have a distinct influence for good. It seems to me that the importance of some kind of active exercise for the youth of a nation can hardly be overestimated, and that anything which has a tendency to further this cannot be regarded otherwise than as beneficial. That the Olympic games will cause a heightened interest in outdoor sports and pastimes, I think, is beyond question, and the only possible objection that I can see to them is that they may tend to emphasize too much the competitive side of sport. I think there is no question that, in this country at least, too much attention is given to making records, and that in many branches of sport the fact that we are taking our exercise for our body's sake, and not to defeat some adversary, is lost sight of.

However, it is an undeniable fact that most people will not keep in first-class condition unless there is some object in doing so, and for this reason I think competitive athletics should be regarded with more favor than they would otherwise deserve.

The Olympic games will form a great central event, which will give people an object for keeping in good condition, so that they may try their fortune in the varied list of sports on the programme; and if the desire to take part in this great festival, joined to the wish to represent one's country in any way, however small, will not stimulate an interest in athletic sports, I do not know what will.

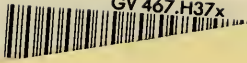
To summarize, then, very briefly, the points I have tried to call attention to:—

In the first place, for everyone who realizes the advantages of scientific physical culture, the games have a deeper significance than

they would have as mere athletic contests. They aimed at being international in character, and at awakening a new interest in athletic sports; and, aided by the enormous crowds of spectators, were a complete success. When we consider that these first games were merely an experiment, and that notwithstanding this they accomplished a vast amount of good for the cause of outdoor sports, I see no reason to doubt that in coming years, when the meeting places are more accessible, and interchange of ideas on all that relates to physical education becomes simplified, the Olympic games will prove a source of lasting benefit to the world, by scattering broadcast the doctrine that the body must be educated as well as the mind, ~~and~~ that, to do the best work as individuals and as a nation, we must have *mens sana in corpore sano*.

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Hartwell, Edward M.
Peter Henry Ling, the Swedish
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[Boston, Mass. : American Physical
Education Association, 1896]
13 p. ; 24 cm. -- (American Physical
Education Review, nos. 1, 2)

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